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The Classroom Teacher As A Guidance Worker

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Foreword

The objectives and the functions of teachers reflect the objectives and the functions of education. In the past half century these objectives have changed quite drastically, and the increasing importance of guidance services in the American school is evidence of this change. Even more important, however, is the change in the attitude and the philosophy of the teacher, and this issue of the JOURNAL will be devoted to the role of the teacher in the guidance program. As editor of this issue, my thanks go to Edward A. Wicas, Robert W. Brown, Philip L. Clark, and Charles R. Dolan.

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Chapter I

THE TEACHER AS A GUIDANCE WORKER

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A panel of class members discussed "The Role of the Classroom Teacher in Guidance" before the remaining members of the class of graduate students participating in a guidance course at a College of Education during the 1956 summer session. Two of the students who heard the discussion were asked by the instructor to react to what had been said. Their replies were as follows:

Mr. Moe: "Well, what they said was all right, I guess. But, I don't think it was very realistic. You can't tell me that the classroom teacher, with all he has to do — preparing lessons, teaching, explaining, making assignments, giving and grading exams, and all that — can be expected to do one-tenth of what has just been told to us by the panel members."

Miss Mee: "I agree with Mr. Moe in that what the panel members have said seems like a tremendous task, but I'm wondering whether or not good teachers, including Mr. Moe, have been doing some of these guidance things for quite some time now. My guess is that they have. What has been discussed has strengthened my attitude toward some of my present practices which I haven't even associated with guidance before, and I think I now have some new ideas which I suspect will lessen my teaching burden rather than make it greater."

In almost any beginning course in guidance one will discover the Mees and Moes. An objective of such a course is to increase the number of Mees until by the end of the term there is nary a Moe in the lot.

Mr. Moe believed that the teacher has a pretty big job in preparing lessons, teaching and evaluating. Few will disagree. He didn't believe that teachers could be expected to do very much in the way of guidance. Miss Mee discovered that she had been using certain guidance practices without knowing it, and she welcomed additional ideas as aids to lighten her teaching rather than as added burdens to increase her task.

There was a time when almost the whole task of the teacher was to teach, to examine and to maintain order. This task went well with the aim of our schools — to develop the students' intellect and capacity. Undoubtedly some of those who placed great emphasis on this training, and who kept order by using the rod, accomplished their goal with some of the students. As an increasingly greater proportion of our young people attended the common school, individual differences among the students became more and more apparent, and the aims of education began to change. Good teachers today realize that education is concerned with more than developing intellect and capacity; they are inter-

ested in more aspects of their pupils than the intellectual one alone. Indeed, the student personnel point of view which holds that education is concerned with the total welfare of the individual has become widespread. Modern education cannot stop with subject matter alone. It is concerned with the preparation for living as well as making a living. It is concerned with the intellect, with emotional adjustment, with values and with character and behavior. It is concerned with human relations, physical well-being, and esthetic appreciations. It is concerned with citizenship.

By paying attention to the total welfare of our youngsters teachers are discovering that they are able to do a better job of developing intellectual capacity. In other words, a consideration of all aspects of the individual seems to enhance rather than hinder the training of the intellect.

The writer remembers the contrast between his sixth and seventh grade school experiences in the early thirties. A reluctant, sullen, hostile, fearful, school-hating class of sixth graders became a cooperative, participating, unafraid, eager, school-liking group of seventh graders. Could it be that the seventh grade teacher discovered that these pupils were not as stupid and unmanageable as the sixth grade teacher probably reported them to be? The seventh grade teacher was one of those referred to by Miss Mee who "had been doing some of those guidance things for quite some time." She is remembered as one who seemed interested in the pupils themselves. She seemed to have a respect for her charges. She motivated them. She was calm and soft-spoken; she didn't nag or ridicule; she was fair. The pupils liked and respected her a great deal. There are some people who will say that she was using only the expected good common sense. But, was she? Possibly her "common" sense was more uncommon than common in that day. And now in 1957, before we label many guidance practices as just good common sense, we should determine just how ordinary and widespread they are.

As teachers adopt more guidance practices they will come closer to realizing their objectives as teachers. As teachers and guidance people work together, teachers themselves become guidance workers and provide better than ever for the total development of the individuals in their classes.

With or without a trained counselor and a set of guidance services at hand there is much in the area of guidance that can be done by the teacher. Indeed, even if a school is fortunate enough to have a counselor and a set of guidance services, the counselor cannot carry on a guidance program without the aid and cooperation of the teacher. Guidance services in the secondary school usually are considered to be: orientation, personal inventory, the educational and occupational information service, counseling, placement and follow-up. Guidance services in the elementary school are less well articulated in that it is more difficult to categorize the activities than it is at the secondary level. Cottingham (2) states that in the elementary school guidance is a viewpoint emphasizing concern for the needs of the child, a service including the elements of the total plan for assisting pupils, and a process by which through certain personnel practices pupils are provided experiences that will help them become better adapted to society. Others have accepted elementary school guidance as the gathering of pertinent information about the pupils including an identification of their needs, and the provision of experiences designed to help meet these needs. Solidly behind any organized guidance program and service there

must be school-wide acceptance of the personnel point of view — the acceptance of the premise that the function of education is to provide the means by which each individual child may develop to the best of his intellectual, physical, psychological and social potential. This includes acceptance of the idea that attitude and atmosphere are important. Without elaboration it means a sympathetic, accepting, and understanding attitude toward pupils and a school atmosphere conducive to maximum positive growth of all aspects of the individual.

Let us consider at least some of the things which make up so-called common sense plus some of the understandings, skills and techniques of guidance which can help the teacher be a guidance worker right in the classroom, and consequently, help him to come closer to realizing his objectives. This new role of the teacher is paying off in a better student product.

The writer recently conducted a survey of one hundred teachers for the purpose of ascertaining what guidance practices they used in their classrooms. The survey instrument was of the check list type consisting of over one hundred guidance practices and techniques. The teachers were asked to indicate which ones they used in their classrooms and which ones they deemed most helpful and recommended that other teachers use. These teachers emphasized the following: attention to the influence they, as persons, had on the children; the prevailing atmosphere of their classrooms; orientation; observation; personal data sheets and questionnaires; check lists, tests and inventories; sociograms; rating scales; autobiographies; and interviews. These are selected for brief consideration here. No attempt will be made to give comprehensive treatment to all aspects of guidance in the classroom.

The Influence of the Teacher

The teacher who possesses a thorough knowledge of subject matter and skill in teaching techniques can be a great and very effective influence in the classroom. A teacher's influence, however, is made by example as well as instruction. The kind of life the teacher leads, his conduct, and his habits may be more important than his formal teaching. Think of the words, "Do as I say; not as I do." They imply, much to our dismay, that actions mean more than words at times when we may wish otherwise. Teachers may begin their guidance work by checking themselves on such personal characteristics as appearance, standards of conduct, language, and emotional control. Pupils' development may be furthered immeasurably by the kind of person the teacher is. Let us hope that teachers try to set good examples which will promote positive pupil growth. Youngsters need teachers whom they can respect — teachers who set an example of exemplary conduct and show emotional maturity.

The teacher who has the respect of his pupils has an advantage in creating and maintaining the positive, wholesome classroom atmosphere which facilitates the educational program. Keeping the right feeling tone or emotional climate, then, is another way in which the teacher functions as a guidance worker and by which he may increase his teaching effectiveness. The atmosphere should be permissive enough for individual expression. This doesn't mean that there should not be any guiding rules or limits of behavior. It is possible for a teacher to be quite strict and yet have an excellent classroom climate. According to Redl and Wattenberg (7) youngsters are able to develop with less conflict where relative harmony

reigns. When students are forced to work in an atmosphere heavy with pressure added burdens are placed on them. The home, neighborhood, and community environments of the student are important to his past, present, and future development, but often the teacher has little or no control over these environments. However, in the classroom he is the leader and key figure in environmental control. He can do a great deal to make it a secure place for the insecure, a challenging place for those who need challenge, a friendly place for those who need friends. He can do much to make his classroom, its physical properties and its atmosphere, such that it may help to fulfill many of the varying needs of its occupants. He should endeavor to make it meaningful to all — a positive force in each child's total development, taking the child at his level of development and helping him to progress at an appropriate pace.

Mr. Moe, what kind of an example do you set? What is the emotional tone of your classroom? Do you take your students as they come to you and help to further their progress? Miss Mee and countless others are aware of these things. They are alert to individual needs and are seeking further understandings and techniques to help them prepare their students to be well-adjusted, contributing members of our society. They see their class members as worthy individuals and as members of a **group.**

Orientation of Students

Whether or not there is a formal organization of guidance in the school, the teacher can assist in the orientation of students — orientation to the school, his classroom, his grade, or subject; orientation to out-of-class activities, school personnel, the community; orientation to the next step, be it the next subject, grade, school building, summer camp or job, special training school, college, armed services, or the world of work. Orientation may be effective before and after any break or change in the normal sequence of school progress. It is a matter of preparing the youngsters for the next step, and facilitating adjustment to the step after it has been taken. This may be one of those common sense aspects of guidance. But, unless teachers plan orientation meetings and activities based upon the needs of their pupils, there is a good chance that orientation will be either forgotten or haphazard and ineffective.

A thorough introduction to the library used to be a part of the college freshman orientation program during the first days of the fall term on most campuses. Experience proved that such an early introduction to library facilities and procedures was almost worthless. Librarians had to re-orient almost every freshman student individually when his first term paper or project was assigned. Consequently, other than pointing out its location, many colleges now postpone library orientation to the time when all freshmen are assigned some sort of research paper by their instructors of English. The library orientation is now a part of their freshman English course. Learning the proper use of the library is now meaningful to the students, and they profit from this better timed orientation.

Observing and Recording

Much information concerning pupils may come as a result of careful observation. The observing and the recording of pupil behavior and performance are a distinct part of formal guidance programs, and still remain

as the most important information gathering techniques available to all teachers. Needs often are identified as a result of observation. The record of what is observed, along with other information gained from such tools and techniques as interviews, questionnaires, tests, and check lists, become a part of the personal inventory or cumulative record.

In order to be a good observer and reporter a teacher must know what to look for and how to report it in an objective manner. He must know what constitutes the accepted range of behavior of the age group with which he is working. He must learn to recognize the signs of trouble and potential trouble; learn to discover what causes behavior. He must know how to differentiate between what is considered normal and what is considered deviate in terms of both the kind of behavior manifested and its frequency of manifestation. Teacher observations, subjective as they are, should be recorded as objectively as possible. Opinions and interpretations should be withheld until there is enough evidence to indicate valid conclusions.

Here, again, the observing and recording of pupil behavior is something more than common sense. The discrepancies among reports of people as to what they witnessed at the same event are legion. An experienced teacher recently admitted to a class of fellow teachers that she hadn't realized how blind she had been until after she had written a term paper on observation and had begun to put into practice some of her findings.

There are many things to observe. If a teacher is sensitive to the general welfare of his students, he will watch for impaired eyesight, difficulty in motor co-ordination, speech and hearing difficulties, and other possible troubles of a physical nature. He will take note of students' defense mechanisms. The teacher should observe students' reaction to success and failure; their reading, study, work and play habits. Other things which should be observed include the students' relations with peers, older children, younger children, and adults; their interests and the kinds of things which seem to motivate them; their special talents and inaptitudes. Raths (6) suggests that in order to help identify whether or not the basic needs of pupils are being met, teachers should watch for signs of aggressiveness, submissiveness, withdrawal and psychosomatic symptoms of illness. He presents a table of frequency of occurrence of these kinds of behavior as a guide to the seriousness of the behavior. Unfortunately, the undesirable behavior observed doesn't always tell which one or more of the child's needs is unfulfilled. For instance, withdrawal behavior may indicate a need for achievement, for status, for achievement and status, for some other need or some other combination of needs. One must look further for causes. True, one may discover a complex variety of causes leading to several unmet needs. It is important to attack at least part of the problem even though sometimes a basic cause may be beyond the teachers' ability to do anything about it. This attack is made by an attempt to provide the experiences necessary to give the person more positive feelings of personal worth.

Let it be understood that positive as well as negative aspects of behavior should be observed. Which children show leadership and under what circumstances? Which ones are bright? Which ones seem to have creative ability? Musical talent? Which ones have physical skills?

Observation may take place in the classroom, the corridors, the lunch room, during student activities and on the playground. Family relation-

ship should be observed when there is opportunity to do so. Also, the neighborhood and community must be studied in order to understand the individual.

According to Thomas (8), the casual observation of the way children act is the easiest type of observation, but because the teacher must rely on memory it often leads to a wrong impression. Consequently, even though unorganized observations may help the teacher judge children, they are often unsatisfactory. The keeping of written records of observed behavior by jotting down short, concise descriptions of behavior gives organization to observations. These anecdotal records as they are called may be written while the actual behavior is going on or as soon thereafter as practical.

Teachers, by virtue of their being teachers and the amount of contact time they have with pupils, are in an excellent position to observe. They must be careful, however, not to let their temporary state of mind or health influence their recorded observations. If a teacher does not feel well, he may write an anecdote of trivial behavior which seems important only at the moment. Teachers must be careful that their own emotional and physical health are not reflected in the writing of their anecdotes. In order to be a good observer and in order to write objective anecdotes, ability to put aside personal difficulties must be developed; there must be skill in seeing relationships; ears as well as eyes must be kept open.

Teachers usually begin observing and recording evidences of the individual's progress or lack of progress toward specific objectives. Later they begin to look for evidence which will help them to understand this progress or lack of progress. In fact, a record of any behavior which helps the teacher to better understand the total pupil personality may be found useful and worthwhile. Let it be emphasized that bias should not be permitted to enter a student's record; that normal behavior has a wide range.

Other suggestions that have been made by many writers regarding anecdotal records remind teachers to keep interpretations separate from the anecdote itself and to interpret these "snap-shots" of behavior only in the light of the setting of their occurrence. It hardly seems necessary to add that conclusions about pupils should be drawn only after careful consideration of all information, not just that from teacher observations.

Since teachers do not have time for detailed reports except in special cases, Ohlsen (4) recommends that they keep a 3 x 5 card file. On one side of a card will be the student's name and description of his behavior; on the other side, a tentative interpretation. The teacher should also record his own name and date. Cards should be arranged in chronological order and be put in the child's cumulative record or folder.

Gathering Information

There are many other techniques and devices that the classroom teacher may use profitably in gathering information about their class members. The teachers who participated in the survey noted above checked the rating scale, the results of which are based on observation, as another one of these devices. A rating scale is a directed observation in that the rater's attention is directed to certain selected traits. Validity and objectivity of rating scales are improved by carefully worded instructions to the

rater, by keeping the traits to be rated at a practical number, by defining the traits and making clear cut discriminations between the points on the scale for each trait, and by pooling the results of several raters. If the rater has had no opportunity to observe the person being rated on any one of the traits, there should be a space for the rater to so indicate. Allowing the persons rated to know the results of the ratings is a trend in the use of these scales, since a discussion of the ratings may become a valuable learning experience. It is an opportunity for students to compare how others rate them with how they rate themselves. Of course, caution and good judgment must be exercised in revealing the results of ratings to students or to anyone else.

Other sources of information about class members are the personal information sheet and the questionnaire. These devices are quick ways to gather much personal data about the individual. Unanswered or partially answered questions may be completed by a brief follow-up interview with the individual. Information sheets and questionnaires should not call for answers which may be embarrassing to the pupil. They should not give the individual the impression that the teacher is prying into his private life. Usually a teacher built instrument, designed to fit the local situation, is better than a standardized one. Teachers should not expect to learn all about a pupil at one time, and it is a mistake to make instruments too long and involved. People tend to resent revealing everything about themselves all at once.

Check lists also may be used to gather information concerning pupils. They are simple devices which are used when a quick survey of some pupil aspect is needed. However, the problem survey type of check list does not give much indication of the seriousness or depth of problems, and one should be careful in its interpretation. Results of check lists may reveal problems, needs, choices, gripes, etc. Noting specific items and combinations of items checked by individuals may give clues to difficulty or potential difficulty. These clues become cues to investigate more thoroughly.

There is an opportunity for teachers to learn something of the inner life of class members by having them write autobiographies. The writing process may be of some help to the student in that it gives him practice in organizing and crystallizing his thinking. And, in some cases, the writing process may give the person some release. The value of autobiographies lies in the insights gained by the teacher and in what may result from an interview between teacher and student concerning the latter's autobiography. Since an assignment to write the story of one's life may result in a chronological listing of events, it is often better to direct the student to limit his writing to some one aspect of his life. For example, he may be asked to write about his goals, his ideals, the future, his happiest time, etc. Teachers should watch for what students omit from their autobiographies as well as what they include.

The teachers also recommend the use of sociograms to others. A sociogram's purpose is to reveal classroom social structure and interpersonal relationships. A teacher may be able to identify the leaders, the fringers and isolates, and the degree of acceptance by others of each class member by replies to such questions and statements as these: Name your two best friends in the class. With whom would you most like to work on a classroom committee? If you were to have a party, which classmates would you like to invite?

Use of a least some of the standardized tests, inventories, and other measures are within the province of classroom teacher guidance activity. If a teacher understands the rationale of tests and has had some formal training in measurement including the administering, scoring and interpreting of group tests, he should be able to use them to great advantage. This doesn't mean that he should attempt to use individual psychological tests and personality measures which are considered to be primarily clinical instruments. Many of these, including the projective measures, require formal courses at the graduate level to qualify one for their use. Teachers, however, may learn to use interest inventories, some adjustment measures, and such tests as those which measure reading readiness, mental ability, special aptitudes and achievement. The selection of the best instruments for one's purpose is not an easy task. The teacher must consider his objectives of measurement. He must consider testing time; cost of materials; validity and reliability of instruments; student appeal; ease of administering and scoring; norms and other aids to interpreting the results. Standardized tests and other measures have many weaknesses but are valuable in that they may be objective and make it possible to compare the individuals of a class and the class as a whole with outside groups. Interest inventories may be used to stimulate students' thinking about vocational and future educational plans. Simple group personality measures may indicate needs and degree of personal and social adjustment. There are tests that may give the teacher more objective appraisal of student aptitude. He may wish to use this as evidence to encourage a student along certain lines of endeavor. Achievement tests, by revealing strengths and weaknesses, help the teacher to adjust teaching plans to meet indicated needs.

A danger of knowing pupils' test results is that one may be apt to label a student according to what the results reveal. This may be guarded against by the teacher's knowledge and understanding of test worth and by the realization that any test measures only a pupil's performance at a certain time, on a specific date, under certain conditions.

The Interview

The interview is the final guidance practice that teachers participating in the survey reported as among the most helpful and recommended to other teachers. There are many kinds of interviews, but it is the guidance approach to the teacher-pupil interview that concerns us. Teachers have discovered that interviews with students are far more profitable to both parties when they, the teachers, let the students do most of the talking. In order to bring this about teachers must pay attention to rapport — that feeling between teacher and student of respect, acceptance, and accord. Good rapport may be almost automatic if the teacher is the kind of person and has the kind of classroom atmosphere considered at the beginning of this list of classroom teacher guidance practices. Teachers need to possess a real desire to understand and help. They should try to identify with the student. Patience is needed, and they should remember that a problem first expressed by a student may not be the real problem at all. The emotional feeling with which students express themselves may be more important than the words used. In his book, *Guidance and Counseling in the Classroom*, Arbuckle (1) clearly shows differences between traditional and modern teacher interviews.

If a school staff member has been successful in discovering causes of behavior on the part of a pupil, he may profit and the pupil may profit by sharing this knowledge with other staff members and by seeking their cooperation in planning and carrying out a program to correct the behavior.

For example, it is noted that a pupil consistently upsets class routine; he is a nuisance on the playground; he is more apt than not to push other children next to him in line. One teacher discovers from a sociometric study that he is rejected by others in the class. If the teacher shares this finding with others on the school staff, a positive program to help the pupil may be launched. A similar case is reported by Pflieger and Weston (5). In the case which they report it was determined that the pupil needed attention, and they proceeded to see that he received it. Over a period of time the pupil made an improved adjustment and became a better citizen. Some teachers might have repeatedly scolded this youngster; others would have sent him to the principal's office if he continued to disturb the class.

The teacher in this new role, interested in the total welfare of all his pupils, must be alert to more than social and emotional problems. The gifted and the handicapped must be identified and helped as well. DeHaan and Kough (3) have authored guidance handbooks for teachers working at the elementary level and at the secondary level. The handbook for the elementary teacher is in two volumes. One deals with the identification of needs; the other presents plans for helping children with special needs. The handbook for the secondary school teacher is similar in design. As well as offering plans for aiding children with social and emotional problems, suggestions are offered for helping potential dropouts; those with physical handicaps; intellectually gifted children; and those with other special talents and aptitudes. These authors seem to feel that the classroom teacher is in the best position to recognize and do something about individual needs and differences.

If teachers must do so much in the way of guidance to help youngsters toward full development, they well may question the role of the counselor or guidance specialist. Why is a specialist needed if every teacher is a guidance worker? The specialist may serve in many ways. He may provide certain of the guidance services such as educational and occupational information, placement and follow-up. He may work with individuals in a counseling situation, spending more time with a pupil than a teacher can devote exclusively to one individual. He may supervise the testing program and administer certain individual tests when needed. He may provide information not easily gathered in the classroom. With the teachers he may plan special pupil experiences. He may be the person to contact out-of-school agencies or persons for special help. He may make surveys and help to evaluate the guidance program and services. The specialist may coordinate career and college day programs; provide in-service training to teachers in the latest guidance developments; develop the record system with the help of teachers. These are among the many ways he may serve. Some of these services and duties are not related directly to the teacher, but many do require his assistance and his support. A specialist can give leadership to a guidance program and coordinate its many aspects. With or without a guidance specialist the classroom teacher can function as a guidance worker, and by doing so, will be re-

warded by greater personal satisfaction and come closer to the attainment of educational goals for all pupils.

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Chapter II

THE TEACHER AS A COUNSELOR

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Counseling has been variously defined, the definitions often reflecting the training, the experience and the nature of the work setting of the definer. Since the field of guidance is beset, as are many other fields of endeavor, by some semantic confusion, it seems appropriate to devote the initial portion of this chapter to a discussion of what counseling is in order to provide a frame of reference for the consideration of the topic, "the teacher as a counselor." Although it is not the purpose to present the arguments for any one particular counseling orientation, the counseling viewpoint of the writer will no doubt color much of what is said.

Counseling Defined

Counseling is a person-to-person situation. It involves an individual on the one hand who expresses an awareness of some unhappiness, doubt or problem troubling him, and who comes to another individual, who, by reason of training and experience, is looked upon as a resource or helping agent to assist the first individual to work through to a solution of the things troubling him.

Most authorities agree that the purpose of counseling is to assist the individual to achieve an understanding of himself so that he may better utilize his abilities and capacities to solve his own problems in a self-determined manner. Tyler (11:14–17), in considering a definition of counseling states that ". . . (1) Counseling is more than advice giving . . . [counseling] progress comes through the thinking that the individual with a problem does for himself rather than through the solution suggested by the counselor. The counselor's function is to make that kind of thinking possible . . . (2) Counseling involves something more than the solution to an immediate problem. Its function is to produce changes in the individual that will enable him to make wise future decisions as well as to extricate himself from his immediate difficulties . . . (3) Counseling concerns itself with attitudes rather than with actions. Actions will change . . . as a result of attitude change. Counseling calls for an exploration of attitudes . . . (4) It is emotional rather than purely intellectual attitudes which are the raw materials of the counseling process . . . it concerns itself primarily with feelings . . . (5) Counseling inevitably involves relationships between people . . . the thinking [the client] does in the counseling [relationship] changes his life more than the thinking he does by himself at home. . . . It is the relationship with the counselor that makes the difference . . ." Counseling then is a relationship between two people who utilize this relationship to explore the feelings and emotions of one of these individuals, the client, in order that he gain an understanding of himself, and through achieving this, be enabled to work out answers to his own problems.

From this consideration of what counseling is, it is apparent that an important condition of the counseling process is the relationship between

the counselor and the client. There appears to be general agreement among authorities in the field that the relationship that develops between counselor and client is of the utmost importance to the process of counseling. We may ask, then, what is this relationship and what are its characteristics? This counseling relationship may perhaps be best understood by examining the atmosphere in which it exists. It is an atmosphere typified by feelings of warmth, friendliness, acceptance and understanding that are expressed and communicated by the counselor to the client. Arbuckle (1) and Tyler (11), among others, agree with Rogers (9) that genuine acceptance of the client by the counselor is an essential quality of the relationship. Acceptance is communicated to the client in part by the counselor's permissiveness, in part by his attitude of interest in and respect for the client. The counselor does not convey acceptance by words alone. Verbal communication, to be sure, provides the basic media, but the counselor also communicates by his very manner, facial expression, bodily gestures and tone of voice. He indicates that he sincerely "feels" with the client, that he is able to see things the way the client sees things, and not the way an outsider would see the situation. The client, in turn, perceives the counselor as a person he can trust, a person with whom he is free to express his feelings, a person with whom he can reveal himself, so to speak, without being evaluated, judged, punished or criticized. The focus of attention in this relationship is on one person, the client, and his feelings and his attitudes about himself and his environment. The counselor perceives these feelings and attitudes and attempts to clarify and communicate them to the client. One can obviously conclude that the responsibility for creating the atmosphere in which the counseling relationship may come into being and grow is that of the counselor.

From the foregoing, we are prompted to ask, what then underlies a counselor's behavior and thought that enables him to function in the way that he does? The implication is certainly not that he is simply a sophisticated technician versed in the knowledge of personality development and equipped with a bag full of "tricks of the trade," so that he can manipulate people and situations. This would be an erroneous assumption, and a rather cynical one at that. The counseling role is not one that an individual can assume and discard as simply as putting on or taking off a coat or a hat. The counseling role is an extension of an individual's life role, and above all, the counselor is himself at all times. The individual's basic attitudes toward human beings and life underline how he thinks and acts as a counselor. These basic attitudes postulate a belief in the fundamental dignity and worth of the individual. To put it more concretely, it means that the counselor has a genuine interest in, and respect for, other human beings as individuals. This is the way he feels about people all the time, in all circumstances, in all situations. This is how he consistently responds to other individuals. The way he operates as a counselor is merely an implementation of his philosophy.

Counseling and Teaching Have Something in Common

Counseling shares with teaching the common goal of contributing to the emotional and intellectual growth and development of the pupil. The classroom teacher finds that his concern is the pupil, and that he cannot restrict himself to just subject matter and the attainment of knowledge and skills. Indeed, good teaching requires that the teacher's attention be

given to emotional, social, physical and moral, as well as intellectual factors that affect his pupils. Learning is a complicated process, and what little we know about it has indicated that it is modified and facilitated by the emotional interaction between the pupil and his teacher and the pupil and his environment. Our focus on the whole child is predicated on the concept that learning can take place most effectively if the child is freed from factors or conditions that distract and syphon off energy. The teacher, by the very nature of the relationship he has with his pupils, may contribute much in helping them achieve a satisfying level of adjustment and integration of personality. As the teacher, he is in daily contact with his pupils; almost half of their waking hours are spent with him. This daily interaction with each other, this sharing in the day-to-day activities and experiences of the classroom, makes the teacher an important figure in their lives. The intimacy of knowledge that the teacher and pupils have of each other, may, if other conditions are present, be utilized to provide the setting wherein the teacher broadens his role and functions as a counselor for his pupils. To focus on the whole child, the teacher is concerned with creating an atmosphere in class which is free of tension and emotional threat to the pupils, where they are free to engage in a variety of experiences which assist them to explore, acquire and test knowledge about themselves and their environment. In such an atmosphere, the teacher is perceived by his pupils as an interested, friendly, warm and understanding individual. The teacher-pupil relationship may very well become the counselor-client relationship.

Should Teachers Function as Counselors?

If we can accept the concept that teaching and counseling have much in common, it logically follows that we consider the question, cannot teachers also be counselors? Among professional counselors, there are those who take a skeptical view of the classroom teacher assuming responsibilities as a counselor. They feel that counseling is the responsibility of the specialist. The fact that some schools do not have the circumstances to employ such specialists, or if they did, they perhaps may not have a sufficiently sized staff to adequately serve the pupil population, leads Arbuckle (1:9) to feel, ". . . if [professional counselors] are the only individuals who provide counseling, the vast majority of students will never be counseled and there will be a greater accentuation of the gap between what teachers do and what, by the nature of their job, they should do . . ." The professional counselors feel that the classroom teacher does not have the necessary training to function as a counselor. Admittedly, many of our teachers today have had little, if any, training which might have prepared them for counseling. This, of course, does not mean that such training is beyond their reach. It would appear in the light of all that has been said about counseling that it is to the teacher's advantage to acquire the training that would permit him, with some degree of confidence and comfort, to perform as a counselor with his pupils.

The fact of the matter is that many pupils seeking help often turn to their teacher for counseling assistance. Even though a professional counselor is available, the pupil may turn to his teacher for help. The direct relationship between teacher and pupil can actually simplify, for the pupil, the process of beginning the counseling relationship. The act of talking to his teacher, already a casual, non-committing act for the pupil,

makes it easy for him to seek counseling help from the teacher. The writer concurs with Gordon (5:265–66) when he states that, ". . . In spite of the lack of education in psychology . . . teachers are placed in many situations which fit the definition of a counseling situation . . . the teacher is not a professional counselor, but . . . he serves in many situations as a front-line counselor . . . and he can function effectively in helping individuals through the establishment of counseling relationship. . . ." The teacher, then, if he is to function effectively, must have some knowledge and appreciation of the counseling process. He must also become aware of the degree of involvement he may or may not have in the counselor's role *because* of his activities as a classroom teacher. There are, of course, certain "conditions" which must be met by the teacher if he is to function as a counselor, and if these are satisfied, there are still certain "limits" to his counselor role.

Conditions to be Met by the Teacher as a Counselor

Perhaps the most obvious condition which must be met by the teacher is that of training. Appropriate training in counseling theory and techniques must be obtained by the teacher, if for no other reason than that of enabling him to experience a feeling of personal confidence when functioning as a counselor. Such training will not only make him aware of what he can and should be doing as a teacher-counselor, but will also point out to him what he should not do, as well as what, by reason of his own capacities and capabilities, he cannot do. It is important that the teacher be aware of the limits placed upon his functioning as a counselor by the degree of skill and knowledge he is able to acquire.

A second condition to be met by the teacher, and perhaps more important than that of having or not having the appropriate training for counseling, is a somewhat more subtle one. It is that of the teacher's own concept of himself and the level of personal adjustment that he has achieved. The teacher's personality plays an important part in, first, permitting him to function as a counselor, and second, in creating the circumstances in which counseling may take place. The teacher must have achieved a healthy level of adjustment and personality integration. This is a basic essential for any teacher to function as a counselor. By this it is not meant to imply that he is perfect, that he is free of problems, fears and anxieties of his own, that he is completely happy and carefree. Such a state of being is perhaps an impossible ideal and is possessed by no man. Attainment of good mental health implies that the individual has achieved a high degree of self-understanding and insight into his own behavior. The individual knows himself and accepts himself. He is interested in life and people. He accepts others and gives of himself to others. He enjoys living, and is not bored, apathetic, or nagging. He has feelings of personal responsibility about what he does, and he has strong feelings of social responsibility and what he can do for others. He is aware of his shortcomings and has learned to accept and to deal with them. He has learned to deal in his own way with the unwanted experiences of life.

The teacher who has not achieved an understanding of himself, the teacher who is not quite sure in his knowledge of how he feels about himself, will find it difficult to create a consistent expression of his life role. He will not be able to provide his pupils with a basic framework of consistent behavior. Without this consistency of behavior, pupils will find

it difficult to "know" their teacher; they will be confused in their perceptions of him.

If we refer back to what has been said about the behavior that typifies the counselor's role, it is obvious that if a teacher is to function as a counselor, the behavior that typifies the counseling role must also typify his teaching role. The teacher cannot, so to speak, wear a number of different hats, so that at one moment he is a teacher, and on another occasion he is a counselor. He must be at all times himself. This "self" is a person who is perceived by his pupils as an individual who does not threaten them, an individual with whom they feel secure and safe, with whom they feel free to reveal themselves, and to talk about their innermost feelings. The teacher whose behavior is such that he is not perceived by his pupils in this manner, can hardly expect to be viewed by his pupils as a counselor. His pupils will perceive him as a teacher, but will not be able to see him as a counselor. Unless the teacher can develop some insight into his own behavior, achieve some degree of self-acceptance, and structure a "self" that allows for consistency between teaching and counseling roles, he will find it difficult to function as a counselor. His pupils will not turn to him when they feel the need to talk over things that trouble them.

Some Factors that May Limit the Role of the Teacher as a Counselor

For the teacher to act as a counselor, he must be aware of the attitudes and the role expectations that his pupils may have toward him. Teachers play a variety of roles in the lives of their pupils, and these roles are not always what the teacher selects or desires. From time to time, the teacher finds himself in such roles as judge, referee, representative of society, source of knowledge, helper in the learning process, detective, object of identification, ego supporter, parent surrogate, target for hostility feelings, friend and confident, object of affection and crushes, etc. Some of these roles may make it extremely difficult for pupils to perceive the teacher as a counselor. The teacher himself may find that in order to function as a counselor he has many handicaps to overcome. Redl and Wattenberg (8:235–60) point out that these roles that are forced upon the teacher result from the images projected by the children, the expectations of the professions, the personal intent of the teacher, and the demands of the larger community.

An important factor is that, whatever the role may be that the teacher finds himself in, he does not have the freedom to interpret and act out the role as he wishes, and such interpretation is bound directly with his attitudes toward other human beings and his own personal adjustment.

If the pupils in a particular school hold a stereotype of the teacher as an authoritarian figure, they may associate their own classroom teacher with this stereotype. His behavior may or may not reinforce the maintenance of such an attitude. If the teacher is in reality not an authoritarian individual and interprets his varied roles with a consistent feeling of warmth and interest in children, his behavior will not act as reinforcement for the holding of the stereotype. Eventually, because of the consistency of the teacher's behavior in all situations, the pupils will perceive him as he really is and discard inappropriate concepts which they had earlier attached to him.

The existence of these role expectations as held by pupils may present itself as a handicap for the teacher and limit his functioning as a counselor,

but such handicaps can be overcome. The teacher should be aware of such role expectations and how he deals with them. Role confusions may be reduced considerably by a consistency of behavior on the part of the teacher. A level of adjustment that allows for a high degree of self-acceptance and a warmth of interest in children will in turn facilitate the teacher's interpreting various roles in a consistent fashion and allow pupils to perceive him as he really is.

Another limit for the teacher as a counselor concerns itself with the condition of the pupil he counsels. The teacher as a counselor works essentially with what we may describe as normal children. He may function as a psychotherapist, but he is not trained to work with seriously disturbed children. As a teacher, this is not his role. He does not possess the extremely specialized training nor does he really have the time to give what these children require. Further, he does not work in the setting which is needed to work effectively with such children. Children with serious difficulties will be best assisted by those individuals whose full time and attention may be devoted to therapy and remedial work. It is important that the teacher recognize such a limit and familiarize himself with behavior symptoms which indicate the presence of deeply-rooted problems which are too involved to be dealt with successfully by the teacher. It is in such cases that the teacher should refer the pupil to some other person or agency that is equipped to provide the help that is needed. Redl and Wattenberg (8:235–60) point out five warning signs for teachers to look for as indicating that the youngster needs help of a special kind. These being: (1) difficulties that persist and last for very long periods; (2) behavior which does not modify or yield in response to the usual techniques available to the teacher; (3) compulsive conduct wherein the youngster does odd things which he cannot seem to help; (4) weak realization of reality on the part of the pupil, his behavior is poorly related to what is really going on, the behavior seems to be inappropriate to what the situation calls for; (5) the existence of objective difficulties such as conditions in the home, conditions in the neighborhood, behavior of parents which pose heavy psychological burdens upon the child.

By the normal child, we refer to someone who, as he grows and develops, is able to achieve an equilibrium between inner needs and the demands of the environment with which he interacts. This child does experience feelings of fear, anxiety and guilt, but his personality weaknesses do not loom so large that they prohibit him from meeting the demands of regular day-to-day activity. This normal child will encounter situations, from time to time, which lead him to experience some dissatisfaction or unhappiness. These feelings may, either by their relative intensity or their duration, exceed what he can comfortably bear and still get along in life and will bring about an awareness of a problem on the part of the pupil. Such is the condition of the child when he seeks out his classroom teacher for counseling assistance. Within this framework, it is foreseeable that most children will find occasion to make use of counseling services at some time or another during the years they are in school. Recognition on the part of the pupil that he is in the state of tension and stress and that he himself wants to seek out some other person for help is an essential condition for counseling to take place. A pupil may or may not associate his feelings of tension or unhappiness with some problem source, such as poor reading, poor study habits, failing in his school work, not getting along

with classmates, trying to do too many things, etc. The important thing is that he is experiencing stress and sees that he cannot handle it by himself and needs the help of someone else.

Another circumstance that might limit the counseling role of the teacher is that brought about by the teacher's own personal motives and needs as they affect his ability to deal with the emotions and feelings expressed by the pupil. Even with the individual teacher who has achieved a healthy, integrated adjustment, there may be occasions when his own needs and problems may color the way he perceives and responds to his pupils. There may be occasions when, because of the particular nature of the pupil's problem, the teacher unconsciously identifies with the pupil and deals with the pupil's situation as if it were the teacher's own. On other occasions, the nature of the child's distress may actually evoke into the teacher's awareness some of his own real problems. What takes place is usually very subtle in nature.

Some of the warning signs that indicate that the counselor has become involved in some way with the client have been pointed out by Korner. He describes such situations as when the teacher finds that it is difficult to follow or understand the pupil's thoughts and feelings, when he finds that he just cannot seem to get interested in what the pupil is saying, or when other thoughts, sometimes of a personal nature, sometimes in no way connected with what the pupil has said, keep drifting into his awareness and act as distractions so that he cannot focus his attention on the pupil. When such behavior occurs, it appears that the teacher's own personal needs have become involved in some way and, to protect himself, he is disengaging himself from the intimacy of the counseling relationship. The teacher should be aware of the significance of such behavior. If these signs appear, the teacher should realize that he will not be able to help the child and should arrange a referral of the youngster to someone else for counseling.

The Referral Function of the Teacher

It is apparent from the foregoing discussion of conditions and restricting limits of the teacher's role as a counselor, that some pupils will not be able to receive from their teachers the counseling assistance they need. In such cases, the teacher will still be able to provide some help by acting as a referral agent. The process of referral is an important one, and one in which all teachers can participate. Indeed, all teachers will do well if they become as proficient as possible with methods of referral and to acquire a rather thorough knowledge of the resources available which they may call upon to help the pupil.

The teacher should know what persons or services are available within the school and the school system, within the immediate community and in nearby communities that are equipped to provide the counseling and special assistance that is needed to help the pupil. Within the school there should be a mutual understanding of the roles and functions of all staff and specialist personnel, such as the full-time counselor, school social worker, nurse, speech therapist, remedial reading teacher, principal and the classroom teacher. Each should know what the other is doing and how each can help and compliment the work of the other.

The classroom teacher is in a position to identify pupils who appear to be in need of the special help that can be provided by some other per-

sonnel worker. In addition, the teacher is able to assist the specialist in his work through providing him with information about the pupil. In turn, the specialist should "feed-back" information to the teacher so as to enable the teacher to fulfill his role on the personnel team in an informed manner.

The referral should be made with the participation of the pupil. The teacher and the pupil have talked things over and the pupil has indicated that he is willing to have the referral made. If it is at all possible, the teacher should make the referral a personal one in that he introduces the pupil to the person who is to provide the special help. In order that the pupil hold no doubts or unrealistic expectations as to what is to take place, complete and clear information should be provided to him and to his parents, regarding the referral process and the service and work of the person or agency to which the youngster is being referred. No promises or commitments can or should be made to the pupil in regard to possible outcomes resulting from the referral.

There should never be any threat associated with referral. It should never be used as a means of disciplining or controlling the pupil. The ". . . you go see the counselor, or else . . ." approach is completely negative and defeats the purpose of referral.

The Teacher Counsels with Pupils

It is important that the teacher be aware of whether the pupil recognizes on his own that something is troubling him and that he needs help, or whether the teacher, in observing the behavior of the pupil, perceives that the child appears to be experiencing some difficulty and needs some help. The teacher cannot initiate the counseling. The student alone has the responsibility to initiate counseling. It is generally agreed that for effective counseling to take place, the pupil must be aware of experiencing a condition of tension or stress and that he recognizes that he needs to turn to some other person for assistance. The first responsibility of the teacher then is to function in such a way that pupils see him as the kind of person they can turn to for counseling help. A second responsibility of the teacher is to function in such a way as to communicate to his pupils that he is available to them, that he has time to give to them for private conferences so they can talk things over.

What then of the pupil who does not himself perceive that he needs assistance? How can the teacher, either through personal counseling or referral, help him? It would appear that a third responsibility of the teacher is to function in such a way that the classroom activities are structured to provide opportunities for the pupil to express himself and to experience himself in new ways. In a permissive, accepting, pupil-centered classroom atmosphere, through opportunities to assume responsibilities for themselves and for others, through such expressive activities as role-playing and sociodrama, the pupils are able to explore themselves and see themselves in new ways. These new perceptions of "self" may help them recognize their own needs and problems more acutely so that they will seek out for themselves help that they need.

Counseling requires that it take place in a situation of privacy and comfort where there is some assurance that it will be allowed to proceed without interruption and surveillance by others. The professional counseling psychologist can see to it that he has just such an arrangement. Not

so for the teacher, his operational setting is the classroom and his office is his desk. For many teachers, anything resembling privacy may be a difficult thing to come by. Where then can privacy be found for counseling? The teacher, perhaps, can best look for those "in-between" times, such as before school, after school, during recess, and during the lunch hour for those few moments of privacy with the pupil.

It is by the very force of such circumstances, then, that the length of the counseling session will be a brief one. The teacher and pupil can expect that they will have from five or ten minutes to perhaps as much as a half-hour together for counseling. Longer sessions may occur, but in all probability will be very infrequent.

Since the teacher as a counselor does not deal, usually, with *deep* emotions or feelings, the frequency of counseling contacts with pupils will generally be of short-term nature. Contacts may range from as few as one or two to perhaps as many as six or seven brief counseling sessions. As is true for the initiation of counseling, the frequency of counseling contacts for any one pupil is determined by the pupil himself.

Very often when the pupil turns to the teacher for help, the stress or unhappiness he is experiencing may be associated with a specific problem or specific decision that has to be made, and which the pupil feels inadequate to deal with by himself. This initial focus on the specific problem that faces him may direct his attention to the solution of the problem rather than to an understanding of himself, so that he can solve the problem of his own. What then, does the pupil expect of the teacher as a counselor? What is the pupil looking for from the teacher? He may want the teacher to give him suggestions and advice. He may want the teacher to identify alternatives for action or even to prescribe a remedy. The pupil quite properly feels he can expect these things of the counselor for he has learned to expect these things of the same person as a teacher. In the pupil-centered classroom the teacher is often called on to act as a resource person and to do these very things in planning, implementing, and evaluating the activities in the classroom.

The concept of counseling and the counselor's role that has been portrayed here has as its emphasis the exploration of the pupil's feelings so that he achieves a degree of self-understanding and arrives at self-determined choices and solutions. The counselor's function is *not* to advise, suggest, decide, or evaluate for the pupil. This difference between the pupil's expectations of the teacher-counselor and the teacher's perception of his own counseling role require that attention be given to clarification of counseling goals and the teacher's role. This structuring of the counseling relationship is a gradual and continuance process and is perhaps best achieved through the counselor recognizing and accepting the way the pupil feels. The responsibility of the teacher-counselor is to understand that the pupil feels that he needs someone to depend upon and to communicate this understanding to the pupil. As counseling proceeds, the pupil himself will perceive what is going on and will adjust his expectations accordingly.

When the teacher extends his role to include that of counseling with his pupils, he must assume certain obligations to his pupils. A pupil's participation in counseling is a voluntary one. The pupil has faith and trust in his teacher and voluntarily expresses his personal feelings and thoughts to him. The teacher as a counselor must require of himself that he main-

tain the faith that his pupils have in him. To this end, it is essential that he function under the guidance of a code of ethics, the underlying principle of which is *his* feeling of responsibility for the welfare of the pupils that come to him for help. The teacher obligates himself to protect the confidentiality of what the pupil has revealed to him, and to be sure that such knowledge about the pupil will never be used in a way that might be detrimental to the pupil's interests.

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Chapter III

THE TEACHER'S USE AND UNDERSTANDING OF TESTS

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This chapter will approach the subject of teachers and their uses of standardized tests as though this were a more or less informal discussion, without statistical verbiage. It will endeavor to answer questions asked by many teachers. To best understand the uses of tests and their results in a school program, the teacher should visualize a functioning guidance program with testing as one of its "Working Parts."

Tests are tools to be used to help the counselor and the teacher to better understand and assist the individual pupil. However, they should not be considered as a substitute for cumulative records, anecdotal reports and records, nor for teacher observation. It is felt by certain student personnel workers that teachers sometimes tend to take extreme views as to the value and use of test results. Some seem to place all faith in them (particularly as to I.Q. and achievement test scores). Others reject most tests as being worthless.

Obtaining Information About Tests

In general, teachers should realize that tests have now been developed to be administered to individuals and/or groups which purport to measure intelligence (mental maturity, scholastic aptitude), potential abilities, achievement in school subject areas, interests and preferences (vocational and personal), personality (as well as attitudes and values), and performance and knowledge concerned with various trades. At present in our typical schools a teacher should be most familiar with tests of intelligence, readiness for prospective goals, achievement in certain subject areas, and those concerned with vocational interests or preferences.

One beginning approach to the understanding of the tests used in a school, or to be added to the testing program, is to be familiar with the criteria by which to judge the worth of a test particularly as it pertains to the school in which the teacher is employed. First, however, the teacher would need to know where to obtain the answers to the criteria questions. In and of themselves such criteria might have little meaning to persons not too specifically trained in the special areas of guidance testing. From what sources might the teacher determine whether or not a test were usable and worthwhile; whether it had predictive values for guidance purposes? A few suggestions follow:

1. The current edition of the Mental Measurements Yearbook by Oscar K. Buros is an excellent reference. This book is revised every four years and is published by the Gryphon Press. It contains critical reviews by test experts of all the widely known tests in the various areas.

2. The test manuals. Test companies publish a manual with each of their developed instruments. The test and its uses are described, as well as instructions for administering and scoring. The reader who is untrained

in psychometrics should be extremely careful in completely judging a test on the basis of the manual story. Although the test publishers are not going to deliberately mislead the reader, it still stands to reason that the manual has been written to help "sell the test." The teacher may well wish to obtain professional assistance in sorting out the real facts about the test, particularly as they pertain to norms and other validity/reliability data.

3. The psychological and student personnel journals are continually publishing research which has been conducted with various tests. These reports are current, and therefore usually helpful. They are, however, often couched in statistical language which is difficult for the untrained to assimilate.

4. Certain educational textbooks published in the areas of psychology, guidance and psychometrics may be helpful sources of information about tests and their uses.

5. Directors of Pupil Personnel Services in city school systems which have developed testing programs at the various academic levels often have funds of information based on practical experiences and training.

6. More and more the various publishing companies have test "consultants" on their staffs who are trained to assist the schools to select tests; even to aid in establishing an entire testing program. This approach should involve "shopping around" to obtain different points of view.

7. Teachers wishing to know more about tests being used in their school might wish to contact the State Supervisor of Guidance or the Counselor Trainer in their own State Department of Education. These specialists should know of persons within the territory who would have particular information about the usefulness of the test or tests concerned.

8. Individuals involved in the teaching of courses in "Educational Tests and Measurements", "Use and Interpretation of Tests in Guidance", and the like, in Schools of Education and in Teachers Colleges should possess authoritative source materials. In many such institutions their services are offered to the schools in the area.

These are but a few of the references from which the teacher might request, and expect to obtain, assistance in understanding the following criteria by which to judge the guidance values of a particular test or tests.

Criteria for Evaluation and Selection of Psychological Tests

Now that some of the sources for obtaining detailed information about tests have been outlined, brief consideration should be given to the criteria on which the evaluation, selection, and use should be based.

1. Validity.
   Does the test measure what it is supposed to measure? How does one know unless one has been trained in statistical measurement techniques? The answer may be found through consulting one or more of the sources listed above.

2. Reliability.
   Does a test measure consistently that which it is supposed to measure? For example, is one as certain as possible that the test is a *consistent* measure of the reading achievement of a fifth grade class.

3. How was the test validated?

4. How long have the norms been established? Where were they established?
   The more widely accepted and used tests are possibly the safest for use because of the fact that continued research has supplemented, often verified the original types of norms. However, some of the larger test companies are making efforts to overcome this fact. Many thousands of persons are tested and the results reviewed by those particularly trained for such work, before the instrument is released on even a limited basis. One company is now forwarding every few months sets of revised norms to the users of one of its new tests.

   Why ask the second question under "4" above? Perhaps the locale in which the instrument was normed may not be applicable. However, is it entirely possible for a teacher in a small Vermont town to know what possible effect there might have been on the scores of her youngsters who have been administered an intelligence test which was normed entirely in a large city such as Chicago? Most tests are not developed in that manner today. However, it would seem advisable to check on such a possibility.

5. Predictive value in guidance.
   What would be the results pattern if, for example, a high school principal developed a Probability Table over a period of several years showing the percentages of successes and failures in the college course for those accepted into such on the basis of a score on a particular intelligence test?

6. Appropriate age range.
   The teacher should investigate the numbers of people on whom a particular test has been validated at each of the reported age levels. It might be found that it had been normed on several thousands at various ages, but on only a comparatively few for the age and/or grade level to be tested in the particular grade or school. If this should be the case, it might be wise to select another test which has proved its worth for such a group.

7. Ease of administration.

8. Ease of scoring. (Clerical help needed?)
   There are tests available which, living up to most of the criteria, also have been designed with these utilitarian advantages in mind. Within the framework of the typically busy school day a time element, and the lack of clerical help, must be kept in mind. In a few of the larger cities there are "central offices" which are in charge of the testing program However, this is most often not the case.

9. Cost of equipment necessary to give, score, and record.

   Consideration should be given to the fact that some of the tests, which still meet the majority of these criteria, are so complicated or time consuming in their scoring requirements that if given in numbers they may have to be sent away for machine scoring. Some very few school budgets cover such items.

   Attention also should be paid to the fact that certain of the now reputable tests, particularly in the areas of intelligence and interests, have reusable test books. Over a period of time such equipment may save considerably in the testing program allowance. This, however, must not be the prime consideration in the choice of tests to be used.

10. Alternate forms.

    Have alternate forms of the same test(s) been developed which may be used validly and reliably with the same groups having been tested previously? The teacher might wish to consider this criterion if it is planned that a same group be tested again at the completion of a subject unit, or even an entire course. An alternate form of a test should produce results comparable to the findings on the original instrument if it were to be administered without the possibilities of "practice effect" at this same later date. Absenteeism on testing days may be another reason for consideration of this criterion, if the teacher feels that for some reason the same test should not be administered to those who were absent from the regularly scheduled testing periods.

11. Typography.

    Typography is not such a stringent criterion when concerned with modern forms of psychological tests. However, it may be well next year, the next, and the next. There still are schools using tests whose illustrations in the performance sections of the media are outdated, even poorly reproduced. What effect such has on modern day youngsters is too nebulous to determine when attempting to interpret test scores. A question on one such test, for example, had as its correct answer an illustration containing an action which depicted an unwise safety measure as learned by pupils at the age for which the test was intended. Test users should watch for such things as changes in human dress (modern day woman), extreme alteration in designs of automobiles, and the like, to see if tests being used, which include such illustrations, have or have not been planned with that in mind.

Teacher Made Tests

No attempt will be made here to discuss teacher made tests and their values as compared with standardized tests. There are several modern publications which deal with this aspect of educational measurement. This present discussion should be considered as a very informal presentation of teachers' use and understanding of the objective and commercial variety of evaluative instruments.

1. Those designed to be administered to individuals only.

   To use such tests the teacher would have to have had special training and certification in the special areas. Although diagnostically such tests are in general superior to those designed for administration to groups, the practical aspects of school budgets and lack of trained personnel limit their use to a very few school systems.

   For purposes of general information three individual tests of intelligence are listed below. Detailed information may be obtained from Buros' *Mental Measurements Yearbook*, and from the test manuals.

   a. The *Revised Stanford-Binet Scale* was published in 1937 and authored by Lewis M. Terman and Maud A. Merrill. The publisher is Houghton Mifflin Company. It is designed to be administered to individuals from 2 years to adult. It is generally accepted in the field of psychometrics that the most reliable results are obtained when it is used with individuals not older than 13 or perhaps 16 years of age.

   b. The *Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children* by David Wechsler was copyrighted in 1949 and published by The Psychological Corporation. It is about at the time of this writing that full research results will be appearing as to its satisfaction as an appraiser of the mental abilities of children between the chronological ages of 5 through 15 years. It is stated that it was standardized with extreme care over a period of five years.

   c. The *Wechsler-Bellevue Intelligence Scale* (for Adolescents and Adults), with the same author and publisher, was copyrighted in 1947. It was normed for ages from 10 through 49 (with deterioration scales designed for later ages). This writer feels that it is one of the most important intelligence tests developed, but that it should be used with individuals from the age of 16 and upward.

2. Those designed to be administered to groups.

   Practically all of the objective tests have been designed to be administered to groups. The instructions for the administration of these tests are most often planned to be read to a group of testees. However, this in no way means that these same tests may not be administered to individuals. Several of the more generally used group tests will be mentioned and briefly described later in this chapter.

3. Projective Techniques.

   The projective measurement techniques in testing require special training on the part of the test administrator. They should not be administered nor the results interpreted by the uninitiated nor by those having passing contact with them in a class in Tests and Measurements. They are concerned with nebulously subjective human personality. This applies especially to such instruments as the Rorschach Ink Blot Test, the Szondi Test, The Thematic Apperception Test, the Rosenzweig Picture-Frustration Study, and

many, many more. Twenty-five such instruments are described in the 1953 edition of *The Fourth Mental Measurements Yearbook.*

Projective techniques actually present an unfamiliar little task which the individual testee must approach as he would approach an unfamiliar situation in life. About fifty years ago Herman Rorschach had the idea that the various things people saw in ink blots might serve as a valuable index as to their personalities. This test, and several other of the projective techniques, have now been developed to the point where psychologists, and others trained to administer such, feel that they are of invaluable assistance in helping to determine the structure of personalities. Most are not psychometric measures, per se, and all are "dangerous toys" in the hands of those not trained in their uses. None should be considered for use in a school system without trained psychometrists present to administer these specialities.

One of the areas of the projective types of measurement, however, would seem to this writer to be of extreme interest to elementary school teachers, now or to be engaged in graduate or other advanced study. The "Play Techniques" which have been developed in this area of the projective study of individuals often serve as tremendous aids to child psychologists in their work with disturbed children. It could not be expected that the teacher of a grade would have the time to utilize such methods in her observation of her children — as would the psychologist working in the clinic. However, knowledge of such techniques using the ordinary media of finger paints, clay, puppets, wooden dolls which may be dismantled, etc., might offer some insight into the behavior pattern of an unusual child which the teacher could observe in the midst of ordinary peer play or study.

4. Multiple Choice.

Almost all of the group tests are of the multiple choice variety. They offer the testee a choice of answers from between two to five suggested responses for each question. The "good" nearly always offsets the possible "bad" points. On multiple choice types of tests there is little opportunity to choose one's own wrong answers. However, the fact that the conceivable answers are patterned makes comparative analysis of scores more possible. Other than for strictly clinical uses this is, of course, the possibility which is desired in the general use of psychological tests.

5. Time-Limit vs. Work-Limit.

Time limit tests include speed as one of the prime factors contributing to the type of score made by the testee. Teachers should realize that for some of their pupils this requirement alone might be the cause of low scores which seem out of line with work performed on home assignments. In such instances, if it is possible, a test which is not timed should be administered in the same subject area. There is on record the story of a girl being tested in a Boston clinic who earned the barely average score of "93" on a timed test of intelligence.

As an experiment she was administered the Ohio State University Psychological Test (Herbert A. Toops, Ohio College Association; Science Research Associates Inc.) which is a "work limit" type of

instrument. On this test, not even using the two hours which is generally allowed, she scored at the 89th percentile for her age group.

Work-limit tests are also known as "power" tests. Almost invariably these are instruments which are divided into a series of subtests. Each subtest begins with so-called easy questions, but becomes increasingly difficult. The average testee reaches his "work-limit" within some or all of the differing areas.

Many tests today combine the "speed" and "power" conditions. Such instruments, if fully understood by those using the results, help to indicate certain strengths and weaknesses in the testee's approach to the problem areas being measured.

The Entity Concept

One of the greatest interferences in the use and understanding of the meaning of test results is what might be termed as the "entity concept." There still seems to exist a popular idea that tests definitely can measure entities within the person. Such an all out belief in the compartmentalization of traits is a detriment to the use of test results for guidance purposes.

Can we be assured that intelligence tests measure "intelligence," that personality inventories completely picture "personality"; that aptitude tests will outline "aptitudes" in such a way as to assure later success? Test results considered separately often are of little worth. The use of an intelligence test score here, an interest questionnaire score there, is questionable, often hazardous. The belief already has been set forth in this chapter that psychological tests should be used, and that the values are many and positive. However, it is felt that the acceptance of separate sets of scores deserves a word of warning.

An I. Q. score over "120" would indicate to most teachers and counselors that the owner should be assured of academic success in college. Last year a young man with I. Q. scores of "144" and "140" on reputable tests of intelligence failed and was forced to withdraw at the end of his freshman year from a New England College. This, of course, does not indicate that the test scores were inaccurate. However, an almost complete avowal to the apparent meanings accompanying such scores caused a lack of attention to the other personal factors involved.

It is generally accepted that sufficient research has been conducted in the areas of mechanical aptitude and clerical aptitude so that scores on the well developed and widely used tests in these areas should be valid and reliable. However, what exactly do such scores mean to teachers and counselors?

What counsel, for example, should a teacher or counselor give to a testee scoring high or low on a test of clerical aptitude? Should they feel that a high score indicates absolute success as a clerical worker? As helpful as such aptitude tests are there are no data in the test manuals which assure later success. The information as to scoring and interpretation of results would probably indicate how those persons now employed or not employed as clerical workers score on such a test; and the fact that those employed in clerical work obtain high scores on the particular instrument. Logically, to quite a degree, they suggest a linkage to later success. This

linkage, though useful, should not be the lone criteria for placement in a Commercial Course.

There are persons who cannot change a light bulb without using the hunt and peck method to determine the direction for loosening the bulb, who might do well on a paper and pencil test of mechanical aptitude. It should be remembered that there are many types of mechanical aptitude. "Machine thinking," for example, might be rather far removed from certain types of "finger dexterity." Too often the scores on such tests are accepted as indicating that the individual has or does not have a mechanical or clerical bent.

We know that workers in the applicable areas scored high on the particular tests of aptitude. We do not know whether those who scored low perhaps would have been successful in the particular job area if they had been motivated for such. The authors of test manuals reverse what might be termed as "antecedent-consequence" data. The test manuals indicate what present clerical or mechanical workers, for example, score on the test, and ask the reader to generalize what went on before. If it were possible, we would like to know a person's true chances of making good in the area being measured.

If forty-five out of every fifty persons obtaining a certain score on a particular test of intelligence failed in a certain high school curriculum or in a college, one might question guiding other persons with like scores into such programs. Such probability data have been and are being developed in the area of intelligence testing. However, little has been done as yet in the other testing categories. Clear thinking as to the use of test results would indicate that such positive predictability is not possible. There are tests in all of the areas which have proved their worth. However, they can be and should be used with such possible limitations in mind. It often appears that in too many counseling situations counselors and teachers forget that traits cannot be compartmentalized and other personal entities cannot be fully measured as such. Why should otherwise perfectly helpful test results be used in such a way for guidance, diagnosis, prognosis, even direct direction? As one who administers and uses tests almost daily, the writer reemphasizes a suggestion that tests should be employed as tools in a fashion comparable to the doctor's use of a thermometer.

Intelligence Tests

Almost all teachers in the schools today have access to, and nearly all have their own records of the intelligence test scores of their pupils. Secondary school teachers often register I.Q. scores in their grade books. Teachers in the elementary schools have cumulative record forms in their rooms on which these results are recorded. What do these listed scores mean?

Although the writer is a persistent user of intelligence tests and their results, thinking certain ones to be invaluable for guidance purposes, warning beacons are kept in mind. One should contemplate, before accepting the outright prognosis of the results of the particular instrument, whether or not it, or any test of intelligence, measures intelligence. Does it measure aspects of intelligence, scholastic achievement, achievements which are not scholastic, perhaps undeterminable elements of home en-

vironment and training? Or should not these things be measured as parts of intelligence? To take a purely negative point of view as to the all-out use of such scores, one might affirm that intelligence tests are based on the proposed fact that all individuals have an equal opportunity to learn. Therefore, if one has learned more, that is, has scored higher on such a test, that individual is the most intelligent.

It is not necessary to take such a view if test users realize that obviously it is not possible to measure intelligence directly as one might find the length of a dining room table. The measurement, therefore, is that of a "performance". Stimuli are established by the testmakers in the form of certain questions or tasks. On the basis of the testee's reactions to such, an inference is made as to his type of mental ability.

All that this means, actually, is that the teacher should make every effort to know what is supposed to be measured by the intelligence test being used. What is meant by "intelligence"? There are several definitions. Stoddard (6:4), for example, described intelligence as being

> . . . the ability to undertake activities that are characterized by difficulty, complexity, abstractness, economy, social value, adaptiveness to a goal, emergence of originals, and to maintain such activities under conditions that demand a concentration of energy and a resistance to emotional forces.

A teacher accepting this definition of intelligence should examine the test in use to discover which of these aspects of ability are indicated in the results. "Difficulty" might be meant as the ability shown on a sub-test of vocabulary which extended from a word such as "orange" to one recognized by the very few. "Complexity" might be assumed to indicate such difficulty in different areas of reasoning. Few of the present day tests of intelligence could meet all of these criteria. The majority of teachers recognize that such is the case. The important thing to be remembered is that in the testing of intelligence, it is a performance on one test, on one day, that is being evaluated.

In general, the apparent constancy of I.Q. scores is an indication that the instrument used is a reliable tool for guidance purposes. However, teachers realize the fact that for those pupils where there are discrepancies between scores and other evidenced abilities one or more of many factors may have affected the testee's recorded performance(s). Factors within the child's environment, within the individual himself, factors within the particular test, and elements within the administration of the test, may have caused an inaccurate score to be recorded.

Tests of intelligence designed to be administered to groups were developed during the first World War. Many, many more have been added since that time. These tests are of the "subtest" or of the "Spiral-omnibus" variety. "Spiral-omnibus" means that several different types of questions are asked over and over again in different forms. For example, the first five questions in a particular test might in turn be concerned with arithmetical reasoning, verbal meanings, spatial relationships, word fluency, and memory. These five areas of questioning, and others would be asked in rotation throughout the test. In the first type a certain number of subtests produce a "non-language" or "performance" score. Other subtests provide the "verbal" or "language" scores. The Total Mental Factors, which make up the final score, involve the same type of reasoning

abilities as are included in the spiral-omnibus type of test. However, each of the subtests covers one of the many mental factors, and is "work-limit" (power) in nature. As stated previously, the average testee reaches his limit as to ability to answer the questions in each of these sections.

A few of these types of test which are at present widely used in the schools are described briefly. As stated previously, detailed information may be obtained from Buros' *Mental Measurement Yearbook*, from the test manuals, and from other sources.

a. *California Test of Mental Maturity:* 1936–51; has five levels from Pre-Primary through Advanced. That is it may be used from kindergarten through adult years. It is authored by Elizabeth T. Sullivan, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs; and is published by the California Test Bureau. There are several adaptations. The results yield scores for total mental factors, language factors, non-language factors, spatial relationships, logical reasoning, numerical reasoning, and verbal concepts.

   This is a power test which has time limits set for each of the subtests. Some feel that the I.Q.'s obtained are high in comparison with scores on other group tests of intelligence. Others, perhaps not accepting this claim, emphasize the potential use of the differential ability scores which are available from the results.

b. *Kuhlmann-Anderson Intelligence Tests* by F. Kuhlmann and Rose G. Anderson, has separate booklets for each age range covering the school years from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. There are continued revisions to this test which was first published in 1927. It is now issued by Personnel Press, Inc. Mental Ages are provided as well as I.Q.'s as is true in many of the popular instruments. Some feel that it is cumbersome to use and score, while as many more think that the instructions for administering the tests are clear and easy. It is one of the most generally used tests in the schools today.

c. *The Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability*, by V. A. C. Henmon and M. J. Nelson is published by the Houghton Mifflin Company. Revised norms were produced in 1950 after the test had been placed on the market in 1931. Its editions are available for grades from three through sixteen. This test yields a single global score, with strong emphasis on verbal abilities. Certain researchers feel that the estimates of mental abilities obtained are too high in comparison with results on other reputable tests of intelligence. It is still widely used, and particularly at the secondary school level. The "Clapp-Young Self Marking" factor makes for great ease in scoring.

d. *Ohio State University Psychological Test* by Herbert A. Toops is published by the Ohio College Association, with one of its forms being published in two editions by Science Research Associates, Inc. It is written that since its publication in 1919 this test has been the object of continued revision of norms and study. Its age ranges are for high school, college, and for adults. It is a power test which purports to measure scholastic aptitude and reading comprehension ability.

e. *SRA Primary Mental Abilities* by L. L. Thurstone, and T. G. Thurstone is published by Science Research Associates, Inc. It appeared in 1943, and is for ages from five to seventeen. Its co-ordinated test batteries are supposed to measure verbal-meaning, perception, quantitative number, motot, space, and reasoning abilities. It is in wide use.

In a guide developed by the New York State Counselors Association (1:38) the authors indicate cautions which should be observed in the use of intelligence test results:

1. Even the best of intelligence test should be interpreted with discretion. The "omnibus" type of intelligence test may obscure rather than disclose specific learning abilities.
2. Differing results obtained from use of various intelligence tests may be due to norms derived from groups that differ in age, education, or experience.
3. Intelligence test scores or I.Q.'s are only one measure in the profile of the individual.
4. The interpretation of the I.Q., mental age, or percentile ranking of intelligence tests must be governed by the limitations of the term "intelligence".
5. The results of tests given at the upper age levels may not be entirely reliable, because opinions differ as to when mental growth reaches a plateau.
6. Increments in growth are relatively constant between the ages of 6 and 12, making this, probably, the most satisfactory period in which to give intelligence tests.
7. Although critical scores have been determined for a number of occupations, the correlation of intelligence test scores with specific occupations has not been definitely established.

Such warnings are simply to remind the teacher and counselor that intelligence test scores may not always be accurate, may be misleading, and should not be used as the sole criterion in judging the potential abilities of an individual. In general, if used carefully, the majority are excellent counseling tools.

Achievement Tests

Standard achievement tests are measures by which the achievement of an individual in practically any subject area may be compared with his own previous records, with the achievement of other individuals, and with groups. They are excellent instruments for teachers to use for guidance purposes, particularly where the need for remedial measures are needed.

The same cautions should be contemplated in the use of achievement tests as have been discussed in this article about tests in general. Especially the teacher should realize that it is impossible for such a test to measure all of wished for results in any subject matter course, including personal values involved.

Some of the reputedly reliable and widely used achievement tests are:

1. *Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills* was authored by H. F. Spitzer with E. Horn, M. McBroom, H. A. Greene, and E. F. Lindquist, and published by the Houghton Mifflin Company (1940–1947). The tests are designed to measure the mastery of skills involved in language, arithmetic, reading, and work-study. It may be administered in grades from 3 to 9.

2. *Stanford Achievement Test* was authored by T. L. Kelley, G. M. Ruch, and L. M. Terman, and published by the World Book Company (1923–1943). New norms are supposed to have been available in 1952. The primary battery (Grades 2–3) offers scores in paragraph meaning, word meaning, spelling, arithmetic reasoning and arithmetic comprehension. The Intermediate battery (Grades 4–6) and the advanced battery (Grades 7–9) test for paragraph meaning, word meaning, language usage, arithmetic reasoning, arithmetic computation, literature, social studies, elementary science and spelling.

3. *Cooperative General Achievement Tests, Revised Series* was authored by the Cooperative Test Division of the Educational Testing Service (1940–1951). It is designed to be given in grades 10 through 12, and to college entrants. The revised series is supposedly designed to measure general proficiency in the fields, as opposed to mastery of specific course content. In the latest series are tests of such proficiency in the fields of Social Studies, Natural Science, and Mathematics. Cooperative tests are available also in the area of English.

4. *Metropolitan Achievement Tests* were authored by G. H. Hildreth with collaboration of R. D. Allen, H. H. Bixler, W. L. Connor, and F. B. Graham and published by the World Book Company (1931–1950). There are five levels that may be tested: Grades 1, 2, 3–4, 5–7, 7–9.5. Primary I Battery: Word pictures, word recognition, word meaning, numbers. Elementary Battery: reading, vocabulary, arithmetic fundamentals, arithmetic problems, language usage, and spelling. The Intermediate and the Advanced Battery contain the same areas: Reading, vocabulary, arithmetic fundamentals, arithmetic problems, English, literature, geography, history and civics, science and spelling. Scores are indicated as grade equivalents.

This list is not to indicate that these four are the only acceptable achievement tests on the market. They are listed as outstanding examples. There are others which are used in many schools where they are found to be reliable aids in counseling. A longer listing might include: *California Achievement Tests* (Grades 1 through 14) published by the California Test Bureau; *The Iowa Tests of Educational Development* (Grades 8.5 through 13.5) published by Science Research Associates, Inc., and *Tests of General Education Development* (High school and college) published by the American Council on Education; distributed by Cooperative Test Division, Educational Testing Service.

Readiness Tests

There is so much to be known about tests supposedly measuring readiness for any skill or goal that this writer will not attempt to describe their uses. However, so many elementary schools today using readiness tests par-

ticularly in the area of reading that it seems wise to at least list some of them for the reader. The teacher should choose these tests carefully, and thoroughly understand them, so that indiscriminate use will not result. It should be known also that there are those who believe tests of reading readiness can not replace the use of tests of intelligence plus teacher made measures of vocabulary, and the studied observation of teachers as to the desires and abilities of her pupils.

1. *Gates Reading Readiness Tests* were authored by A. I. Gates and published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University (1939). There are scores in five areas for this test designed to be used in Grade One: picture directions, word matching, word-card matching, rhyming, letters and numbers. It is still one of the most widely used.

2. *The Harrison-Stroud Reading Readiness Tests* were authored by M. L. Harrison and J. B. Stroud, and is published by the Houghton Mifflin Company (1949–1950). The test items in this instrument, designed for kindergarten and first grade, differ somewhat from most tests of reading readiness in that they emphasize the following: making visual discriminations, using the context, making auditory discrimination, using context and auditory clues and using symbols.

3. *Lee-Clark Reading Readiness Test, 1951 Revision* is by J. M. Lee and W. W. Clark, and is published by the California Test Bureau. For kindergarten and grade one, it measures letter symbols, concepts, and word symbols.

4. *Metropolitan Readiness Tests* by G. H. Hildreth and N. L. Griffiths is published by the World Book Company (1933–1950). This general readiness test for children at the end of the kindergarten year and first grade entrants measures in the areas of "reading readiness," "number readiness," and "drawing-a-man" (Optional). Statements have been made that these tests are of the best of the available readiness tests.

5. *Murphy-Durrell Diagnostic Reading Readiness Test* was developed by H. A. Murphy and D. D. Durrell, and published by the World Book Company (1949). It is designed for first grade entrants and offers three scores: auditory, visual, and learning rate.

Special Aptitude and Ability Tests

These tests are either of the "performance" type, wherein the testee manipulates different types of objects, or of the paper and pencil variety. They attempt to measure a performance in some specified skill area and project these results as to the person's potential in that particular field.

Because there are so many types of aptitude tests, and because the classroom teacher so seldom administers such instruments or comes in contact with the results, they will not be listed nor reviewed herein. It might be known that they have been developed for use in areas which include mechanical, clerical, art, music and other special areas. Some are designed, for example, to measure finger dexterity, others to indicate aptitudes for spatial relationships abilities. The interested teacher is urged to employ great care in the choice and/or use of such tests. Informa-

tion about such measurements may be obtained from *The Mental Measurements Yearbook*, and from others of the test information sources outlined at the outset of this article.

Personality Tests

Gordon Allport was once heard to state that although traits are the units of personality, personality tests do not measure traits. He felt that the testee's replies were forced into the same continuum upon which was measured certain common aspects of the actual traits.

The writer feels that personality tests and adjustment inventory results should be used only by those with special training in these areas of specialization. Special rapport must have been established with the testee before the psychometrist can be certain in any way that the answers are valid and reliable. How can one untrained in the use of such tools, without having worked very closely and personally with the individual, have any true knowledge of the honesty of the replies, or of the real understanding of the questions (and of himself) on the part of the testee?

Although such tests are administered frequently in many guidance test batteries, the results are seldom used at their face value. They are used as "talking points" with the person having been tested, in a general approach for purposes of discussion. Again, however, since the classroom teacher does not in general come in contact with such results unless it is in conference with a guidance counselor, specific mention and descriptions of tests in this special area will not be included. This is not to indicate that the writer feels that there are not many very helpful tests of personality, nor that the results should not receive careful use in counseling situations.

Interest Tests and Inventories

Tests in this area are being used more and more in our secondary schools. The results increasingly will be available to the classroom and homeroom teacher. Therefore, it is wise for the teacher to be cognizant of the values and weaknesses in such instruments. The results, although they can be exceedingly helpful, should not be accepted at face value, nor as a "lone criterion."

They probably are most helpful as a "beginning" measure in the counseling of an individual toward vocational goals. Although it is often a fact, there is no proof of correlation between "interests" and "abilities"; and certainly neither can control the fact of or lack of available job opportunities.

Taking a rather negative look at these really positive aids, the teacher should realize that most such tests must be based on an assumption that likes and dislikes of persons in a particular occupation differ from those in other occupations. Therefore, this assumption continues, if a person's score is comparable to that of, for example, a successful lawyer, he will be happy and successful pursuing that profession. This, of course, is not necessarily the case. Tests of this nature indicate differences between interests of successful members of one occupational group and of those in another occupational group. However, it is impossible for them to designate those who *will become* a success in any job area. Furthermore, they do not use or show the differences between successful and unsuccessful members in the same occupational area. One might ask also about the

reliability of comparing the preference answers of youth with those of adults who are already on the job. It should be noted too that many of these tests have been normed only on the "professions," without regard for the many other occupational and job classifications.

One other warning point seems applicable in this brief discussion. It is felt by most guidance workers that only the high and the low interest scores should be used in a counseling situation (and then only in conjunction with many other individual and situational data). What, for example, does it mean if Sally Ann scores at the 52nd percentile in a "clerical" area? Because the score *is* above "average" (by 2 points) does this indicate her desire to enter this field? The question seems to answer itself.

These and many other "cautions" should be kept in mind by anyone using the scores on an interest type test. With these inherent flaws in mind, interest and preference scores, plus other information about Sally Ann, may be invaluable in helping her toward a successful and happy vocational future.

Three such tests are described briefly. There are others which might be favored by the reader. These are included as examples of ones used regularly in certain counseling situations.

1. *Occupational Interest Inventory* by E. A. Lee and L. P. Thorpe is published by the California Test Bureau (1943–1946). It is designed for use in grades 7–12, 9–16, and for adults. There are critics of this instrument who write that its validation is of the "arm chair" variety; that its appeal is one of format. The writer has found it useful in counseling through having the testee answer all of the questions, but draw a line through the sets of two choices wherein he would not choose either as a vocational future. He is asked also to check all of those choices which seem to interest him most, and double check those which are of outstanding interest. The counselee is also requested to "write-in" any feelings he has about the possibilities offered in the various test items. Using such an approach the results obtained have been most helpful when used in conjunction with *The Kuder Preference Record* which offers scores as percentiles in broad occupational areas.

   On this test scores are grouped as follows: "Fields of Interest" (personal-social, natural mechanical, business, the arts, and the sciences); "Types of Interests" (verbal, manipulative, computational); and "Level of Interests."

2. *Kuder Preference Record — Vocational* is by G. F. Kuder and published by Science Research Associates, Inc. (1934–1951). The newest form, still designed for individuals in grades 9–16 and for adults, has eleven scales with profile sheets for men and for women. These areas are: outdoor, mechanical, computational, scientific, persuasive, artistic, literary, musical, social service, and clerical. Using a "pin-punch" type of answer sheet it is an easy test to score and profile.

3. (*Strong*) *Vocational Interest Blank for Men, Revised.*
   (*Strong*) *Vocational Interest Blank for Women, Revised.*
   These tests, probably the mose widely discussed of the interest variety, were authored by E. K. Strong, Jr. and published by the

Stanford University Press (1927–1951). At one last count it might be scored for 25 specific occupations for women, and in 39 specific areas for men. It is designed for use with those 17 years of age and over. It also may yield results pointing to "masculinity-femininity", "maturity of interest", and "occupational level". A major limitation to the general use of this instrument is the time element involved in scoring its complete battery. Cost would also be an issue in many schools if the entire tests were administered to large groups. However, it is reported that it is a valuable instrument in a counseling situation; one which has stood well varied use and professional criticisms over a period of time.

Conclusion

Psychological tests are much like hoes. They are excellent, sometimes necessary, tools in the hands of those who know how to use them, and who have a love for and knowledge of the soil with which they work.

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Chapter IV

THE TEACHER'S ROLE IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

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History of the Vocational Guidance Movement

Before beginning a study of the role of the classroom teacher in vocational guidance it would appear wise to investigate its historical aspects in order that one may perceive more insightfully the relationships between present day vocational practices in light of their derivation from the experiences of the past.

The history of vocational guidance is a complex one in that many individuals in many different lands have played their unique roles in its establishment as an integral part of our present day school curricular. Plato in his *Republic* referred to the need for vocational planning. Cicero in the first century, B.C., stated, "We must decide what manner of men we wish to be and what calling in life we would follow" (5:12). Locke, in 1695 wrote, "He therefore who is about children should well study their Natures and Aptitudes, and see, by often Trials, what Turn they easily take" (9:14). In 1795 Henry MacKenzie, in his *Man of Feeling*, wrote, "Indeed, the education of your youth is every way preposterous; you waste at school years in improving talents, without having ever discovered them; one promiscuous line of instruction is followed without regard to genuine capacity, or probable situation in the commonwealth" (4:21). By 1881 Lysander S. Richards had stated, "All we claim to perform is to bring order out of chaos, and form or establish a system to enable a person to find the most fitting pursuit in which he can reap the greatest success that is possible for him individually to attain" (5:22).

At one time or another many cults have championed the cause of vocational guidance. Their numbers include astrologers, palm and card readers, phrenologists, physiognomists, mediums, and seers (5:23). Like the sciences of chemistry, astronomy, biology, and others, vocational guidance was perhaps born in the realm of the pseudo sciences. Today, however, as with the aforementioned sciences, vocational guidance appears to have attained a growth and stature which needs no defense of its established objectives.

In San Francisco in 1895 a vocational guidance program was developed at the California School of Mechanical Arts. However, the program apparently failed to expand beyond the parent institution. At the turn of the century state-supported schools providing a similar form of vocational training were established in Massachusetts and Wisconsin.

Present day vocational guidance seems to stem from the work of Frank Parsons in his organization of the Vocational Bureau in 1908 in Boston. The primary aim of this Bureau appeared to have been to assist young people in making their vocational choices based upon their own individual aptitudes and interests. "Parsons' concept of vocational guidance was expressed in his book, *Choosing A Vocation*, in which he described the

field as embracing three broad factors: (1) clear understanding of self, (2) knowledge of the requirements and conditions for success in different lines of work, and (3) true reasoning about the relations between these two groups of facts" (2:23). Parsons also appears to have first introduced the term "vocational guidance," which he described as a process designed to aid young people in choosing an occupation, in preparing themselves for it, in finding an opening in it, and in building up an efficient and successful career.

The National Vocational Guidance Association, affiliated with The American Personnel and Guidance Association, defines vocational guidance as being the process of assisting the individual to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter upon it, and progress in it. One can clearly see here how closely this definition follows that of Frank Parsons' orginal definition of the term.

Vocational guidance is structured by the United States Office of Education in the following manner (1:81): "The purpose of the vocational guidance program is to provide individuals with the information and skills needed to make wise decisions in matters affecting vocational adjustment. The vocational guidance program is designed to result in efficiency in education and training, both for the individual and the school, and to improve the chances of the individual for progress and satisfaction in his occupation. It provides the individual with cumulative evidence about his abilities, interests, and aptitudes. It provides, also, comprehensive information about occupations, training, and employment opportunities. It sets up means for aiding his placement and adjustment in his chosen work, and particularly provides for counseling.

"The program is a part of the total educational program but not identical with any other element in it. Guidance services are not a new form of instruction in the accepted sense of class-room activities. They aid the school in its instructional program and render assistance essential to effective administration and supervision. They do not recruit for any phase of education or training, but aid the individual to make an educational plan which will lead to an attainable vocational objective from the standpoint of enlightened self-interest and understanding."

Super (14:1) under the heading, "The Nature and Purposes of Vocational Guidance and Counseling" states, "Vocational counseling has two fundamental purposes: to help people make vocational adjustments and to facilitate the smooth functioning of the social economy through the effective use of manpower."

The Role of the Classroom Teacher in Vocational Guidance

The classroom teacher of predominantly subject-matter areas eminently fulfills the role of a vocationally oriented instructor if he but realizes the relationship of his specific course to the world of work with which he is confronted at every turn. One, of course, does not intend to infer that every class minute of every school day must have its vocational implications, otherwise the course fails in its vocational responsibilities. Such an extreme is comparable to the too common insistence that in relating to the vocational we must of necessity debase our more academic courses. The latter point of view ignores the fact that most of us, boys, as well as an increasingly large number of girls, must one day be self supporting. Too

often this school of thought stresses the more academic areas as the "disciplines," with the evident inference implied that they alone provide a form of mental training not existent in other course areas. There is no valid evidence to support this contention that one course, any more than another, will provide a form of mental discipline lacking in the other.

A second broad reason why the study of vocations should be inextricably blended with the more academic subject areas results from the realization that a study of occupations per se too often may, even under the best of instruction, become increasingly stultifying to the learner. In the everyday activities of our daily living one learns a little of this, perhaps much of that, with a great deal of variation of interest areas. It is the experience of the writer, as well as of others with whom he has conferred, that the study of occupations more logically falls into the so-called academic course areas where they may receive their just emphasis as the proper occasion arises, and at a time when student interest may well be most high.

One question might well be asked, "In what courses and at what levels should such occupational information be disseminated by the 'academic' teacher in his role of the vocational instructor?" One increasing school of thought holds that such information may be presented as early as the elementary grades. McCracken and Lamb (10), as early as 1923, suggested a graduated vocational guidance course of study starting at the kindergarten level and terminating at the sixth grade. Others who followed them, and who likewise suggested the presentation of vocational guidance as an integral part of the elementary school curriculum, are Bailard, Woodhouse, Duffy, Jenson, Buell, Torrance, and Adams (8: 274–76).

At the secondary level it has likewise been found that subject-matter teachers are logical disseminators of vocational materials. With reference to career group conferences Rubinfeld (13:224) states, "We discovered that when subject-matter teachers in fields relating to the particular conference requested their students to sign up, attendance was better than when the announcements were made in the homeroom. The teachers were able to relate their subject to occupations, and seemed to do a much better job of interesting youngsters in attending conferences."

A question might be raised under the heading of the prevention of overlapping of vocational areas throughout the grades. Billings (2:231–32) suggested the following outline.:

Early Grades (1–3)

Talk about the work of: Fireman, grocer, milkman, postman, occupations of relatives.

Middle Grades (4–6)

Study of workers who help to feed, clothe, shelter, and protect us.

Junior High School Grades (7–9)

Survey course in occupations, or complete unit in connection with social studies.

Senior High School (10–12)

Through English: by means of themes on vocations; book reviews; oral topics; interviews; debates; dramatizations. Some workers directly

concerned with proficiency in English are: news reporter, copy writer, proofreader, radio commentator, columnist.

Through Mathermatics: by considering the work of the actuary, engineer, machinist, sheet-metal worker, statistician, architect, carpenter.

Through Social Studies: by discussing such workers as banker, historian, ambassador, consul, city manager, post office employee, other representatives of city, state or national government; occupational problems with which government and individuals are concerned, for example, public utilities, railroads, mines, organized labor, cooperative organizations, agriculture, and so on.

Through Science: by studying the work of the nurse, doctor, bacteriologist, chemist, agronomist, biologist, entomologist, horticulturist, florist, seed tester, gardner, X-ray technician, physicist, optician, geologist.

Through Art: by noting the work of photographer, artist, sculptor, ceramic engineer, commercial illustrator, costume designer, stage properties designer.

Through Music and Dramatics: by observing and studying the work of the school or private musician, actor, radio entertainer, and other related occupations such as music critic, music salesperson, accompanist, speech and voice expert.

Through Home Economics: by introducing the study of the dietition, tea-room manager, waitress, cook, hostess, laundress, salesperson or demonstrator of foods and household products by radio and other means, Home Bureau agent, interior decorator.

Through Shop: Occupations to be considered depend on shops in which school training is given.

Through Commercial Subjects: by studying about the typist, stenographer, accountant, bookkeeper, file clerk, private secretary, office machine operator.

An example of secondary teaching of vocational materials occurred in a "Current Problems" class at Hanover (N. H.) High School. Their "Introduction" taken from their April, 1956, study follows:

Introduction

The members of a senior class in "Current Problems" at Hanover, N. H. High School, whose names are appended to this introduction are happy to present the results of our "Vocational Survey of Hanover."

This vocational survey, which was begun in December, 1955, was undertaken for three reasons. (1) It was felt that a survey of a local situation would be a valuable educational experience for senior students. (2) The guidance officer of Hanover High School suggested the value of such a survey, to him and to the school. The guidance officer desires

to help find employment for graduates; the school has an obligation to train its students so they will be better employees. (3) The statistics and conclusions should be of interest to Hanover's citizens.

The work on this survey may be divided into three sections: (1) Planning, (2) Interviewing, (3) Collection and interpretation of material.

(1) Planning. A master list of all local establishments was drawn up after careful checking of telephone and business directories. The names on this list were then divided among all the participating students, trying, wherever possible, to match types of business to the vocational interests of the individual students. Next 5 x 8 file cards were prepared and duplicated, to permit objective recording of desired information about every type of employment within each establishment.

(2) Interviewing. So far as it was possible, every employer was interviewed in person by a student. With very few exceptions, all employers were directly interviewed, either personally or by telephone.

(3) Collection and interpretation of material. The collection and filing of the interview cards, the classification of the information, and the production of this report have been the final step.

In our opinion, this report gives a complete and accurate picture of the vocational situation of Hanover. Any omissions or errors (inevitable in such a survey) are of minor consequence and should not affect the validity of the conclusions reached.

Such a broad survey as this can succeed only as a result of cooperation from the many persons involved.

We are especially grateful to the employers whom we interviewed. They were unfailingly courteous and cooperative, even when the interviews must have been an inconvenience.

We thank . .. .

In Lebanon (N. H.) High School, an example of a so-called "purely academic" college English class project (Grade 11), along vocational-educational lines, resulted in the development of occupational briefs by class members following a legalistic format (1). As an example, one such brief was outlined as follows:

A Brief

I Should Become A Nurse

I. "Nursing is an art — and if it be made an art, requires as exclusive a devotion, as hard a preparation as any painter's work, for what is the training to do with dead canvas or cold marble, compared with having to do with the living body — the temple of God's spirit. Nursing is an art which concerns every family in the world." (*The School of Nursing of the Massachusetts General Hospital*, quotation of Florence Nightingale, as inscribed on the back cover of the pamphlet.)

II. A need exists for me to become a nurse, because

A. There is a need in the profession, because

1. Nurses make up the largest single group of employees in the hospital. (*The American Hospital*, 1946, pg. 122.)
2. }
3. }
4. } etc.
5. }
6. }

B. There is a need in science, because

1. }
2. } etc.
3. }

C. There is a need for more nurses in hospitals that I am interested in, because

1. }
2. }
3. } etc.
4. }
5. }
6. }

D. There is a need for myself, because

1. }
2. } etc.
3. }

III. I have a practical method of becoming a nurse, because

A. I will have adequate financial support from the members of my family, because

1. }
2. } etc.
3. }

B. There are certain academic requirements that I must have, because

1. }
2. }
2. } etc.
4. }
5. }

Note: Report continues through IV.C.6 and includes an extensive bibliography.

Some guidance authorities feel that guidance in the schools should place more emphasis on the personal-social adjustment rather than the vocational aspect. Other guidance personnel, however, feel that the vocational aspect of guidance should be increased rather then lessened.

An example of this philosophical cleavage is evident in a recent article disseminated by the U. S. Office of Education entitled, "Are We Neglecting Vocational Guidance?"(11). The article makes reference to The National Manpower Council's recommendations, a portion of which is as follows (3:197):

> "School officials should use their guidance and counseling staffs primarily for vocational guidance purposes and, when expanded resources of staff and funds permit, also for counseling students with personnel adjustment problems."

It is evident that deep concern is felt that vocational guidance, as such, has been supplanted by "general" guidance, with a rather definitive mandate that we should return to the guidance of Frank Parsons, namely, the vocational.

The problem is, of course, like many problems, hydra-headed. One logical answer would perhaps be a two-fold division of responsibility within guidance itself, with an even greater specialization than is presently the case. One person could serve in the dual capacity of a "Vocational-Educational" guidance specialist, with a second person designated as a specialist in the "Personal-Social" aspects of guidance. Next in line up the guidance hierarchy might well be a Chief or Director of Student Personnel Services to whom the foregoing guidance specialists would be responsible. Such an assignment might work well where there are sufficient funds and trained guidance personnel to adequately implement such a program. However, this is not too often the case.

A second possible answer, of course, lies in the satisfactory implementation of presently available teaching personnel in the assumption of the guidance prerogatives which appear to be peculiarly theirs in their function as classroom teachers. In order to inaugurate such a program, however, it would appear that the nation's teacher colleges and other such teacher-training institutions must lay far greater emphasis on guidance in their required courses than is presently the case. The corollary of this greater use of teachers as guidance personnel is, of course, that more care be evident in the selection of candidates for teaching degrees, in that their personalities be such as would more readily fit the assumption of their guidance responsibilities.

With reference to the implementation of guidance in the schools the Manpower Council listed what it recommends as the five objectives of guidance in the schools (3:196):

1. A fundamental objective of vocational guidance must be to make young people aware of the need to give more deliberate thought to the problem of their occupational choice. Considering the fact that nearly all men spend their lives working and an increasing number of women are also employed for most or many years of their lives, a surprising number of them fail to give any particular attention to their occupational choice during their school years. As a result many fail to prepare adequately for work and later find themselves in less demanding and rewarding jobs than they otherwise might have had.

2. Vocational guidance should help young people avoid early acceptance of overly modest occupational goals. At about the time of high school entrance many young people begin to drop out of school and many others

who sit through their classes lose interest in their work. One reason is that they have never seriously considered where they are going occupationally. If they could set themselves a realistically high occupational goal, school would become more meaningful.

3. Young people should be discouraged from early commitment to curricula or courses that will prevent them from changing or raising their occupational sights later in their educational careers. Partly because vocational guidance grew up in connection with the vocational education movement, some counselors make an effort to guide youngsters early into specialized curricula. Another factor is the pressure exerted on the schools by some parents to have their children specifically prepared for a job. Yet as technology changes, preparation for a particular job today may prove worthless tomorrow. Furthermore, many employers consider the best preparation for a job to be a high school education stressing the fundamentals of effective communication, at least elementary mathematical operations, and the ability to apply knowledge to the problems of life and work. And, as a recent Round Table on executive potential and development has stressed, business emphasizes the importance of a college degree in hiring young people who might eventually reach the managerial ranks.

4. Vocational guidance should help a young person discover the opportunities available to him for education and training. Many young people who desire further education after high school need help in selecting and gaining admittance to the right kind of school program. Many need information about costs and the possibilities of financial aid. More youngsters who do not intend to continue their education might do so if they possessed all the relevant information.

5. A paramount objective of vocational guidance should be to motivate youngsters to get as much as they can out of their high school education. This objective will, of course, be promoted through emphasis on the other objectives just enumerated. Many high school students do not see the relationship between their studies and their future work. They do not understand that mastery of the fundamentals will be of value in nearly every job, in their military services, in gaining promotions, and in occupational flexability. Their motivation for school is, therefore, frequently low, and the time they invest in secondary education largely wasted.

Conclusion

In closing it is suggested that the reader consult an address by Jesse B. Davis, one of the early leaders in the vocational guidance movement. As president, he spoke before the National Vocational Guidance Association at Oakland, California, August, 1915, on the topic, "The Problem of Vocational Guidance Stated." Although his words were spoken 41 years ago his theme remains constant, the same address being equally applicable if presented to a similar group today. His summation follows (6:421–22):

"In summing up this brief statement of the problem we can say that whenever boys or girls, men or women, are seeking to find themselves,

and to prepare themselves for that field of human service in which they can be most truly successful there is need of more systematic vocational guidance. Whether it be the street-urchin plying his trade or the factory-child tending his machine, whether it be the untrained young man or woman drifting from job to job, or whether it be the child selecting his course of study or the youth choosing his career or professional school — the need of each and all is for proper guidance in taking each important step in the process of growth and education as it presents itself for decision. Our problem is to provide the means by which we can adapt our system of education to these needs, so that it will be a continual process of adjustment to the vocational outlook of the individual in preparing himself for the life work for which he may be best fitted by nature and by training. This cannot be accomplished in a purely mechanical manner nor by the mere introduction of a new subject into the curriculum. It must become the aim and purpose of all education. It must inspire the individual with a worthy ambition and an ideal of true success; it must broaden his vision of the call of the world for human service; it must provide a more conscientious preparation in character and training to meet the peculiar temptations and demands of the chosen vocation, in order that each individual who finds his best field of labor, however humble or exalted it may be, will receive that reward which comes only to those who have the soul satisfaction of having done the best that it was in them to do."

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NEXT ISSUE

April, 1957. *Guidance for the Classroom Teacher* by Dugald S. Arbuckle. Postpaid price, $1.00.

Increasing emphasis is being placed on the teacher's actual role as a guidance worker. This issue will be concerned with his specific functions in the testing and group work aspects of an over-all guidance program.

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